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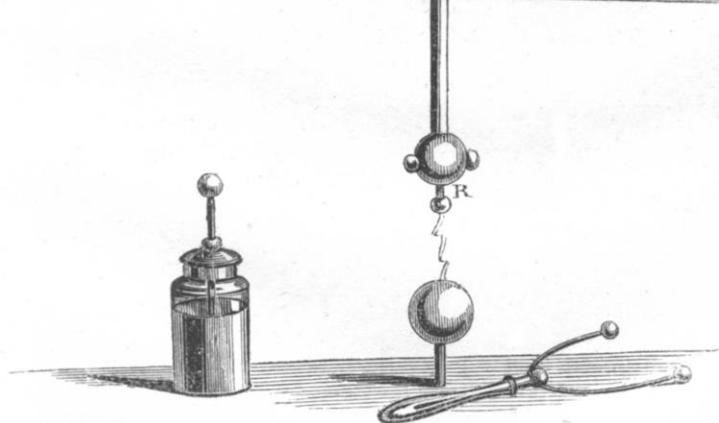
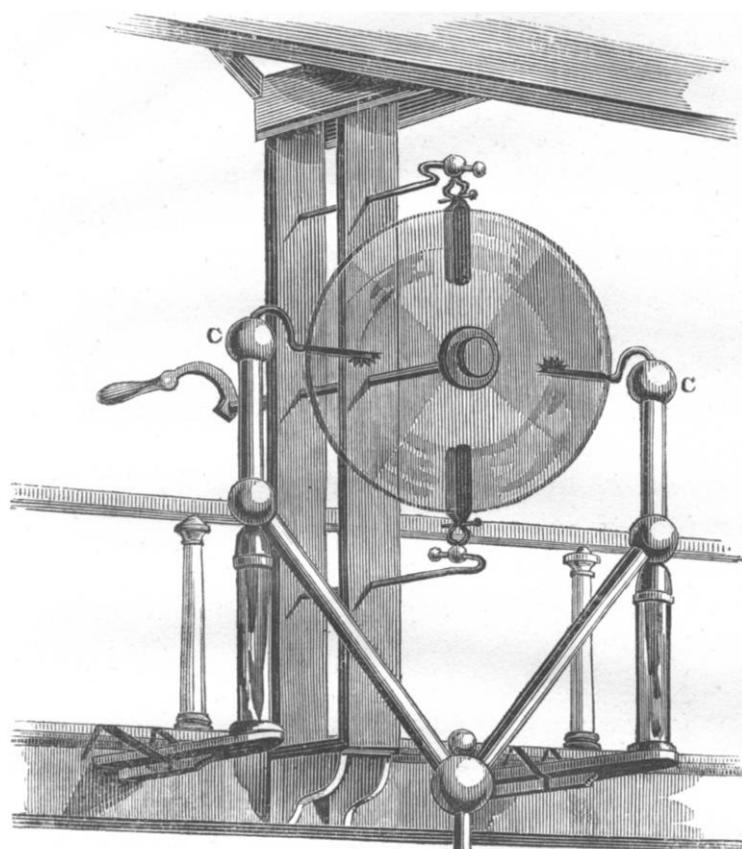
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ARTICLE XX.

Description of an Electrical Machine, with a Plate four feet in diameter, so constructed as to be above the Operator : also of a Battery Discharger employed therewith : and some Observations on the Causes of the Diversity in the Length of the Sparks erroneously distinguished by the terms Positive and Negative. By R. Hare, M. D., &c., &c., &c.

THE opposite engraving represents a machine with a plate four feet in diameter, which I have recently constructed so as to be permanently affixed to the canopy over the hearth of my lecture room.

This situation I have found convenient even beyond my expectations, as the machine is always at hand, yet never in the way. In lecturing, with the aid of a machine on the same level with the lecturer, one of two inconveniences is inevitable. Either the machine will occasionally be between him and a portion of the audience, or he must be between a portion of the audience and the machine. Situated like that which I am about to describe, a machine can neither hide the lecturer, nor be hidden by him. With all its power at his command, while kept in motion by an assistant, he has no part of it to reach or to handle besides the knob and sliding rod of the conductor, which are in the most convenient situation.

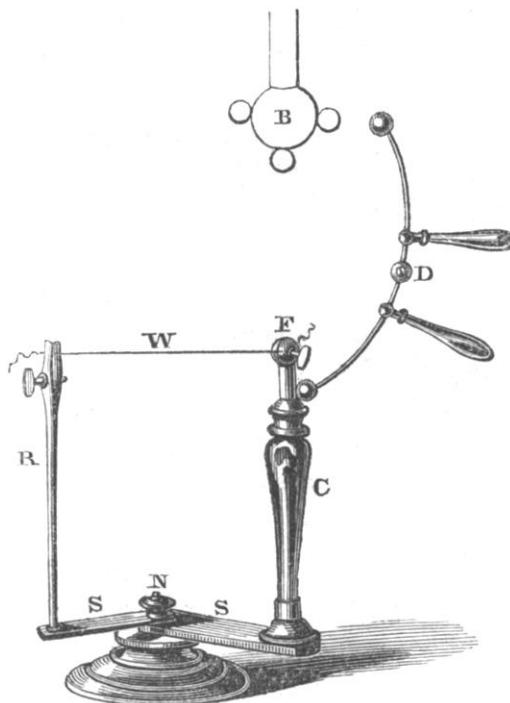
The object of this machine being to obtain a copious supply of electricity for experiments, in which such a supply is requisite, it was not

deemed necessary to insulate the cushions and the axis, as in the electrical plate machine which I employ for experiments requiring insulation.*

The prime conductor is supported and insulated by means of wooden posts covered by stout bell glasses, so that the summits of the latter are between those of the posts and the inner surfaces of caps attached to the conductor. By these means the glass is subjected to pressure, but is liable to no strain. Such a support combines the advantages both of wood and glass. At C C, are the collectors. R represents a sliding rod, which may be drawn out to such an extent as to be brought in contact with any apparatus placed under it upon the table.

In fact, the large rod in which the rod R slides may be slipped up to any elevation through the hole in the brass ball which sustains it.

DR. HARE'S BATTERY DISCHARGER FOR DEFLAGRATING WIRES.



This apparatus is employed by me in lieu of Henley's universal discharger; being better adapted to my apparatus, and mode of ope-

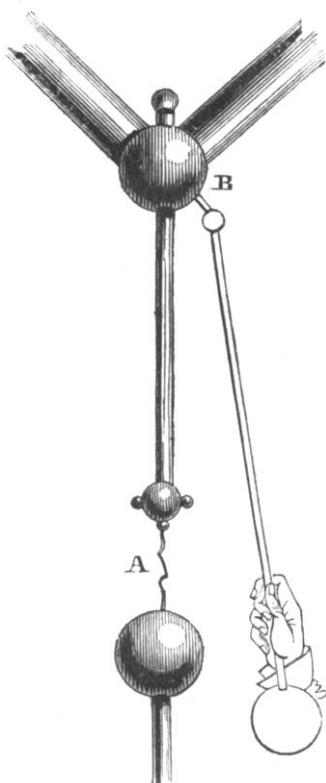
* See Silliman's American Journal of Science for 1828, vol. 7, page 108; or London Philosophical Magazine for 1823, vol. 23, page 8.

rating. Two brass plates, S S, are secured to the pedestal by a screw bolt N, which passes through a hole made in each, near one extremity: the plates are thus allowed a circular motion about the bolt, so as to be set in one straight line, or in any angle with each other. On one of the plates near the extremity not secured by the bolt, a brass socket is soldered, into which a glass column C is cemented, surmounted by a forceps. At the corresponding end of the other plate, there is a brass rod R, perpendicular to the plate, and parallel to the glass column. This rod is also furnished with forceps. Between these forceps, and those at F, supported and insulated by the glass column C, a wire is stretched, which may be of various lengths, according to the angle which the plates S S make with each other. The pedestal should be metallic, or have a metallic plate at bottom, in communication with the external coating of the battery. This being accomplished, it is only necessary to charge the battery, without subsequently breaking the communication between the inner coatings of the jars, and the prime conductor, by which the charge is conveyed. In that case, touching the conductor is equivalent to a contact with the inner coatings of the jars, so far as electrical results are concerned. Hence, by causing one of the knobs of the discharger D, with glass handles, to be in contact with the insulated forceps F, and then approximating the other knob to the prime conductor B, the charge of the battery will pass through the wire W, as it cannot descend by the glass column, nor reach the operator through the glass handles. These should be longer than represented in the cut.

LONG ZIGZAG OR ERRATIC SPARK, CONTRASTED WITH THE SHORT STRAIGHT SPARK.

"The cause of this difference between the lengths of the two electricities, we have no means of explaining."—*Thompson's work on Heat and Electricity.*

The object of the engraving on the following page is to represent the different forms and lengths of the electric spark, which take place between a large and a small ball, accordingly as they are made negative or positive. The long and zigzag, or erratic spark A takes place between a small ball attached to the positive pole, and a large one associated with the negative pole. The short straight spark B is eli-



cited under circumstances the reverse of those just mentioned. They are represented as simultaneous, but, with the same machine, can of course, only be obtained in succession.

In no respect do the phenomena of mechanical electricity appear more favourable to the Franklinian theory, and more inexplicable, according to the doctrine of two fluids, than in the diversity of the electrical spark in passing between a small and a large metallic ball, according to the manner in which the balls are associated with the positive or negative poles of the machine. When the small ball is attached to the positive pole, the spark is long, comparatively narrow, and of a zigzag shape, such as lightning is often seen to assume; but when the situation of the balls is reversed, the spark is straight and thick, not one-third as long, and nothing of a zigzag shape can be observed in it.

According to the Franklinian theory, when any body is more highly

charged with electricity than the adjoining bodies, the excess of the fluid is attracted by them, while it is inadequately repelled by the inferior quantity of the electric fluid, with which they are imbued. It follows that when a small globe is made positive in the neighbourhood of a large one, the excess of electric matter in the former, is attracted by all the negatively excited metal in the latter. When the small globe is made negative, the metal of which it consists attracts all the electric matter in the large globe. Hence there is this difference in the two cases ; the small globe being positive, a comparatively small *movable mass* of electric matter, is attracted by a large immovable mass of metal : the small globe being made negative, a large *movable mass* of electric matter is attracted by a small immovable mass of metal. The charge being in both cases the effect of the same machine ; the attractive power must be as great in one case as in the other. The forces by which the masses are actuated being therefore equal, it is quite reasonable that the greatest projectile power should be attained, when the small mass is movable. In that case, it will require less air to be removed in order to effect a passage.

There is an analogy between the difference which I suppose to exist in the case under consideration, and that which may be observed between the penetrating power of a rod which is blunt, and one which is pointed.

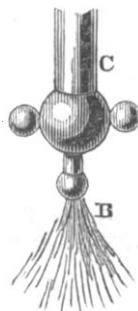
It remains to show why a large mass of electric matter will be discharged in a spark when there is sufficient proximity, although that electric matter be situated in the large globe, and attracted by the other, under circumstances in which, as above stated, it would not pass without that proximity.

It must be evident that attraction increases, as the distance between the bodies which exercise it lessens. Of course the attraction of the small globe must always act more powerfully on those portions of the electric fluid, which occupy the nearest parts of the positively excited globe. But this difference of distance, and consequent diversity of attraction, increases as the globes are approximated. Thus that portion of the electric fluid which sustains this pre-eminent attraction, will be accumulated into a conoid ; the acuteness of which, and attraction causing the acuteness, increasing with the proximity, there will at last

be sufficient projectile and penetrative power to break through the air, and thus open a passage for the whole of the quantity attracted by the small negatively excited globe.

When, by the process last described, the fluid is made to leap through a comparatively small interval, by the concentrated attraction exercised by a small negative ball upon the expanded surface of electric matter diffused through a large globe, the air does not become sufficiently condensed to resist it before it reaches its destination, and, of course, it cannot assume the erratic form which would arise from repeated changes in its course, as in the instance of the long spark.

OF THE ELECTRICAL BRUSH.



When the machine is in active operation, and the prime conductor insulated ; from a small knob attached to it, as at B, in the figure, the electricity will be so sent off, as by the concomitant light to exhibit the form of a luminous brush, as represented in this figure at B. For the production of this phenomenon, it is necessary that the electric fluid shall be condensed into a small prominent mass, so as, agreeably to the preceding explanation, to have great penetrating power. This it cannot possess, when, with the same intensity in the generating power, a large ball is positively electrified. In that case, the electric column presents a front too broad to procure a passage through the surrounding non-conducting air. A small ball, negatively electrified, can only be productive of a diffuse attraction for the electricity in the atmospheric medium around it; so that it has less ability to create any penetrating power, than when acting upon the electricity in a comparatively large globular conductor, as in the preceding illustration. Hence, when the knob is on the negative pole, it may be productive

of a luminous appearance in its immediate vicinity, where the electric matter, converging from the adjoining space, becomes sufficiently intense to be productive of light ; but it does not produce the striking appearance of the luminous brush.

As, agreeably to Du Fay's theory, the knob, whether vitreously or resinously electrified, is surcharged with an electric fluid, the projectile power ought to be as great in the one case as in the other ; and the long spark and the brush, should be producible in either case.

ON SOME INFERENCES FROM THE PHENOMENA OF THE ELECTRIC SPARK, IN A RECENT WORK ON HEAT AND ELECTRICITY.

By the Author of the preceding Article.

In his valuable work on heat and electricity, Dr Thompson states that if a long spark be taken between two knobs, as when severally attached to the positive and negative conductors of the electrical machine ; the portion of the spark near the positive knob exhibits all the characters of positive electricity, while the remaining portion proceeding from the other knob displays all the characters of negative electricity. Although the learned and ingenious author does not state what differences there are between the different portions of the spark, and wherefore, if any exist ; he can, without a petitio principii, assume that they are such as to justify his conclusion. He proceeds to allege that there can be no doubt that every spark consists of two electricities ; which, issuing severally from their respective knobs, terminate their career by uniting at the non-luminous portion of the spark, which is at a distance from the negative knob, of about one-third of the interval. Upon these grounds he infers that the positive electricity occupies two-thirds of the length of the spark, the negative one-third.

I presume that, agreeably to the theory which supposes the existence of two fluids, when the equilibrium between oppositely excited surfaces is restored by a discharge, whether in the form of a spark or otherwise, there must be two jets or currents passing each other ; the one conveying as much of the resinous as the other does of the vitreous electricity. Of course no part of a spark can be more negative

than it is positive, nor more positive than it is negative. Upon this ground, a suggestion of the same author, that the diminution of light near the middle of the spark results from the combination of the different fluids at this point, appears to me injudicious, since there is as little ground for supposing the union of the fluids to take place there as elsewhere. But admitting that the union does take place as supposed, is this a reason for the observed diminution of light? If, when isolated, either fluid is capable of emitting a brilliant light, should not their co-operation increase the effect? If, after their union, they do not shine, it can only be in consequence of their abandoning, at that moment, all the light with which they were previously associated. It cannot be imagined that the light accompanying one should neutralize that accompanying the other.

In deflagrating, by voltaic electricity, a wire of uniform thickness, equally refrigerated, the most intense evolution of heat and light is always midway.

In truth, the theory which the learned author sanctions, requires two postulates so irreconcilable, that unless one be kept out of view, the other cannot be sustained. It requires that the fluids should exercise an intense reciprocal attraction adequate to produce chemical affinity, and of course, enter into combination when they meet, and yet rush by each other with inconceivable velocity, not only through the air, but also through the restricted channel afforded by a small wire. If the fluids combine at a point intervening between the surfaces from which they proceed, what becomes of the compound which they form? Is it credible that such a compound would afford no indication of its existence? But, again, how are two surfaces, the one previously deprived of a large portion of the negative electricity naturally due to it, the other made as deficient of the positive fluid, to regain their natural state? By a combination midway, the resinous and vitreous surcharges might be disposed of, but whence could the vitreous and resinous deficiencies be supplied?

Dr Thompson, in common with the great majority of modern chemists, ascribes chemical affinity to the attraction between the two electricities combined with ponderable particles. As the combinations between such particles take place only in definite proportions,

would it not be consistent that the fluids which give rise to them, should combine agreeably to those laws? But if the electrical compound, formed of the vitreous and resinous electricities, be decomposable by induction, as the theory in question requires, its constituents must be capable of uniting in every proportion.

Agreeably to the late investigations of the celebrated Faraday, equal quantities of the electric fluid are evolved by analogous chemical changes, in equivalent weights of different ponderable bodies. It may therefore be inferred, that in entering into combination the electric fluid is obedient to those laws of definite proportion which regulate other substances.